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privileges of French citizens; Dahomey, 121; Upper Volta, 17; Niger, 9. As late as 1936 out of a total population of fifteen million in French West Africa there were only 2,136 French citizens, with the exception of the citizens of the Four Towns or *Quatre Communes* of Senegal. Virginia Thompson and Richard Adloff in their book *French West Africa* have suggested that this was because at that time 'the advantages conferred by naturalisation obviously did not compensate in the eyes of the great majority of Africans for acceptance of French law in regard to marriage and inheritance, and for the general shaping of their lives according to the European pattern'. This was only half the truth. Just as important a factor was the sparseness of facilities for education, the keystone to a successful assimilationist policy. As late as 1947 only 1.3 per cent of children of school age in Guinea were actually attending school. In Soudan the figure was higher at 5 per cent, Dahomey 10 per cent and Senegal 12.4 per cent.

In each case Senegal is the exception. Senegal sent a deputy to the French Assembly as early as 1848. Her first indigenous deputy, Blaise Diagne, elected in 1914, became Under Secretary of State for the Colonies on several occasions before his death in 1934. But the other territories of French black Africa did not elect deputies until 1946, though they sent representatives to the Constituent Congress in 1945. In 1848 the privileges of French citizenship were granted to all Senegalese living in the Colony, though they were allowed to retain their private law in matters of land, inheritance, marriage and divorce. It was only in 1946 with the passing of the *loi Lamine Guèye* that the privileges of citizenship were granted to Africans other than those who obtained naturalisation, which involved accepting French private law. In Senegal, the towns of St. Louis and Gorée were created *communes de pleins exercice* or full scale municipal councils in 1872 and seven years later a General Council on the lines of those operating in the French departments was established.

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important still a Conseil-Général equivalent to the Conseils-Généraux of the French department but with much greater financial autonomy was established for the colony. However representation was limited to citizens of the colony and not the great majority of *sujets* of the Protectorate. This spurt of assimilation was completed a year later when privileges of local self-government were granted to St. Louis and Gorée which were created *communes de pleine exercice*. In 1880 the prosperous new port of Rufisque, some fifteen miles from modern Dakar, was also accorded these privileges, and in 1887 Dakar was separated from Gorée and also gained them.

This was as far as assimilation was to go politically in either Senegal or the rest of French West Africa. Not until 1944 was there any extension of political rights in French black Africa. Indeed in Senegal the citizens had to fight to retain their privileges against an administration that came increasingly to regret the privileges it had granted the Senegalese in the first fine flush of colonial expansion in Black Africa. Thus until the outbreak of the Second World War one had the paradoxical situation of the French regretting their assimilationist policy and the Senegalese citizens asking that it be applied more liberally. This is one of the main reasons why the activities of French Africans, particularly in Senegal, were channelled not towards the attainment of independence but the assertion of their fundamental equality with the French. Their energies were for long directed to obtaining from the French those rights which in principle an assimilationist policy offered them.

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III. FRENCH REACTION AGAINST ASSIMILATION

000 France had made a great mistake in granting suffrage to the Natives. She did not withdraw her present, but took good care not to repeat it elsewhere.

PIERRE MILLE: *The Black Vote in Senegal.*

648 UNTIL 1913 all the Senegalese deputies in the French Chamber of Deputies were citizens of metropolitan origin. And in the General Council and the municipal councils Europeans, even when they were not in a majority, more often than not succeeded in controlling proceedings. With this European domination of the representative institutions, it may come as a surprise that France not only failed to extend the experiment to other parts of French Africa, but indeed did her best to suppress those rights already granted in Senegal. First of all many of the Governors resented the control the General Council had over the territorial budget, albeit limited. Secondly they found that the General Council tried to run a peace-time administration for that part of Senegal under direct rule, whilst the Governors were more concerned with the pacification of the much larger hinterland, for in those days Senegal included much of what is now Mali. As one historian of Senegal, André Villard, has put it: 'The Colony thought it had the right to lead the quiet life of a French *arrondissement* at the very time when expansion towards the east necessitated exceptional political and military efforts.' An authoritarian Governor like Brière de l'Isle found it particularly galling to be saddled with a democratically elected legislative council. Furthermore the General-Councillors, who were mainly European or half-caste up

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till the end of the nineteenth century, neglected the Protectorate and seemed to think that the only parts of the country that mattered were the four communes. Naturally their official business with the Protectorate was limited, but they did control the three main ports of the country through which the products of the interior passed to France. The councillors, too, restricted education largely to the communes, where on the whole it reached a satisfactory level. They even sent students on scholarships to France, but unfortunately too few of these returned to Senegal to use their newly acquired talents. It was not until the establishment of the Government-General of French West Africa in 1905 that educational facilities were extended to the Protectorate in any great measure.

The increase in education amongst citizens of African origin meant that by the turn of the nineteenth century they were less willing to accept European domination in the communes and the General Council. The assertion of their rights is one of the main factors behind the attempts of the administration to deprive the indigenous Senegalese of their position as *citoyens*. Actually the Administration was batting on a good wicket. Technically a French citizen was one who accepted French rights and duties without qualification. In the case of the Africans in Senegal they had been allowed to retain their own *statut personnel*, that is private law, with reference to civil disputes, matrimony, divorce, inheritance and land. But this seemed to conflict openly with the definition of a French citizen. It seemed wrong that a man should exercise the rights of a French citizen and not accept the consequent obligations. Many Frenchmen felt it quite illogical that an African with four wives could yet be a citizen. And indeed in later years the main obstacle to granting citizenship to other colonial peoples was to be the question of retention of the *statut personnel*. Thus many of the attempts by the French to deprive the Senegalese citizens of their rights were the result of quite genuine objections to the illogicality of their position. Faidherbe,

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interesting suppleness under the most diverse conditions according to the state of civilisation or submission—or lack of submission—of the natives'.

As a reaction against the powers of the Senegalese General Council during the regrouping of the French West African territories the Protectorate, with the exception of Casamance, Thiès, Cayor and Tivaouane and the *cercles* of the Fleuve, was detached from the colony of Senegal so that the General Council could not legitimately interfere in its affairs. However two years later economic and administrative exigencies decreed the reshaping of Senegal and the rest of French Africa into the territorial boundaries that exist today.

The first major attempt to undermine the rights of the Senegalese with the rights of citizens by virtue of being born in one of the four communes, known as *originaires*, came in 1908 when the Lieutenant-Governor of Senegal asked that 1,563 names be struck off the electoral role of Dakar arguing that since the natives concerned were only French subjects they could not vote. Only French citizens could vote, and citizenship could be obtained only by individual naturalisation. This was upheld in the local court but rejected by the *Cour de Cassation* in Paris. However, the Court confirmed that these voters were not French citizens though they maintained that they had the right to vote. This failure to recognise their status as citizens evoked much ill-feeling among the *originaires*. In 1910 the voting rights in the Senegal were in fact extended when it was provided that French citizens living outside the communes but within the colony could vote. But the Minister of Colonies declared that the decree did not apply to 'non-naturalised natives who only enjoy the franchise in the four *communes de pleine exercice* on condition of being born there', and thus once again emphasised the fact that the French Government did not consider the *originaires* as true citizens. Indeed in the following year their position was further aggravated when *originaires* doing their military service in metropolitan units

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641 633 [701] of the army in West Africa, and serving on the same basis as European citizens, were suddenly discharged without reason. A commission of the General Council asked that in future all voters, without distinction of colour, be called on to perform their obligatory military service. Thus by 1912 one had the odd spectacle of Africans, far from trying to avoid military service, insisting on their right to perform it on the grounds that only thus could they secure their rights as French citizens.

However French intransigence over the question of the *originaires* was made clear in the Naturalisation Decree of 1912, which stated that only French subjects born in West Africa could acquire French citizenship. The conditions for acquisition of citizenship were: having proved devotion to France or having occupied with merit for at least ten years a position in a French office, public or private; having learned to read or write French; having given evidence of possessing a means of existence and good character. As a result between 1914-22 only ninety-four natives in French West Africa were naturalised. Those who were defined as 692 641 633 subject to the jurisdiction of the native, instead of the French, tribunals were all those natives 'who had not had in their country of origin the status of European national'. This was interpreted by the *originaires* as an attempt to remove from them their right to appear before French tribunals and subject them to administrative justice like the sujets of the Protectorate, for whilst they were anxious to retain their right to their *statut personnel* in civil matters such as marriage and inheritance, they wanted to be tried in French courts in criminal cases. This evoked furious criticisms by the *originaires* and Maître Lamine Guèye, himself an *originaire* and later Deputy in the French Assembly, wrote 'Our fears were more than justified by the spectacle of what happened in the interior of the Colony, where administrators, reviving in certain respects feudal practices, imposed on the persons of our compatriots of the protectorate acts which were neither human nor French'.

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Such was the outcry against this decree that a further decree in 1914 confirmed that 'all natives born in the four communes would be subject to French tribunals throughout the colony and in certain other places'. Indeed Lamine Guèye was one of the most ardent critics of France for her failure to accord the full rights of an assimilationist policy to the *originaires*. He protested against the way the Government opposed 'the entrance of all natives of whatever status they may be, into the general administrative services, even into military units stationed in the colony'. It was only by insistence on the right to do military service on equal terms with the French that the *originaires* were finally able to gain confirmation of their rights as citizens. In 1914 Blaise Diagne became the first Senegalese to sit in the Chamber of Deputies. He won his seat partly as a result of the split vote amongst his six European opponents, partly because he appealed to the Senegalese voters by his demands for complete equality between black and white. His particular platform was a pledge to vote for a law for obligatory military service without distinction of race or colour. In a letter to the Minister of Colonies he said the *originaires* did not want the privileges without the obligations of French citizenship. At the time, of course, France was just about to enter into the Great War and badly needed troops from Africa. Thus without much difficulty a law was passed providing for the conscription of the *originaires* as French troops. In return for Diagne's co-operation in recruiting troops for the war effort, the Government passed the Citizenship Law of 1916 which once and for all confirmed the status of the *originaires*. They could retain their *statut personnel* and need not understand French to be considered as citizens. 'The natives of the *communes de pleine exercice* and their descendants are and remain French citizens subject to the military obligations of the Law of 19 October 1915.' The rider about the status of 'descendants' was of particular importance to Lamine Guèye who was born in Soudan of *originaire* parents.

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641 648 [643] An interesting sidelight on the confused French attitude towards assimilation and Africans was the status accorded to Blaise Diagne as Commissioner of the Republic in charge of conscription of troops in West Africa. He was given rank equal to that of the Governor-General, Van Vollenhoven, who thereat resigned. However this is only one side of the story. The French insist that he resigned because he felt that the large number of troops to be recruited would wreck the colony's economy and severely reduce the indigenous population. Nevertheless the presence of an African deputy for Senegal was not viewed well in all quarters. But Diagne could not be tempted by high office outside the parliamentary sphere and won a resounding victory in the 1919 elections [666] with 7,444 votes to his opponent's 1,252. He was then appointed Under Secretary of States for Colonies. His essential attachment to France was clear, for whilst in 1919 he became President of the Pan-African Congress, which urged that ultimately 'Africa should be ruled by consent of the Africans . . .' he refused, as Virginia Thompson and Richard Adloff have pointed out 'to support any revolutionary theories as to the emancipation of all Negro peoples'. 'We French natives', he said, 'wish to remain French, since France has given us every liberty'.

646 ● 633 The French were still not happy about the position of the *originaires* and in 1920, not so much from a show of liberalism as from a desire to reduce the pressures exercised on the Administration by the twenty-member General Council, it was translated into a Colonial Council with an increased membership of forty-four of which twenty were sent by the hitherto unrepresented Protectorate. The representatives [631] of the *sujets*, who were provincial or cantonal chiefs, could be relied on to vote with the Administration whose agents they were, and thus reduce the independence of the communes. In 1925, however, the number of chiefs was reduced to sixteen and the citizens' representatives increased to twenty-four as a means of persuading them to vote larger

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taxes, but thereafter relations between chiefs and Government on the one hand and citizens on the other were rarely cordial.

The powers of the Council were very restricted, having legislative rights over minor matters like the classification of roads and the management of public properties. Even these limited powers were subject to the veto of the Governor-General of French West Africa. Its main deliberative competence was over the budget, which though drawn up by the Governor could be criticised by the councillors. This power was watered down by the classification of a large section of the budget as obligatory expenditure. Nevertheless the council was an exceptional institution in West Africa. As R. L. Buell in his *The Native Problem in Africa* wrote:

> That the eight Europeans who participated in the Council should have exactly the same status as the thirty-two blacks is a situation which would strike the Anglo-Saxon as anomalous to say the least. The visitor to the Council will frequently witness a black president calling a European member to order for rowdiness. It does not appear, however, that the council is divided upon racial lines, i.e. of white versus black, except on the issue of higher pay for European officials—a policy which was, in fact, attacked as vigorously by the Europeans as by the native members. The real alignment so far has been the citizen members—both black and European—against the government supported by the chiefs. Black members as we have seen, have unmercifully criticised officials in Senegal. No British colony would tolerate the attacks which the natives make upon European officials in Senegal.

Buell pin-pointed a growing division in the territory—that between the *originaires* and the *sujets* of the Protectorate. The *originaires*, especially since the election of one of their own number as deputy, became increasingly jealous of their privileges. Meanwhile the rest of the territory was administered according to the same principles of administration as were applied throughout the rest of West Africa. Though traditional chiefs were stripped of their traditional powers

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Council in Senegal but differed little in competence. The only concession made to Senegal and not to the other territories, and this undoubtedly being influenced by its political history, was the retention of a single college electorate as against the dual colleges prescribed for all other territories. The French penal code was made generally applicable for Senegal. In January 1946 the three *communes de pleine exercice* (Gorée had by then been incorporated in Dakar) were given full municipal status as equivalent French towns. Finally and most important, forced labour was legally abolished; but it survived in covert forms for several years to come. In Senegal, Senghor received the full credit for this measure from his peasant electorate and has been drawing political dividends from it ever since.

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This move was the more surprising since Senghor was and is one of the most highly assimilated of French Africans. He was the first African to gain his *agrégation*. He was effectively the grammarian of the constitution of the Fourth Republic, and whenever there was a dispute as to the interpretation of the constitution in the National Assembly it was as often as not the second deputy of Senegal to whom the President of the Assembly referred for advice. As a member of a rich family of merchants from Joal, a town which though not privileged like the *Quatre Communes*, had long-standing connexions with Europe, he had been able to pursue his education in France and became a professor there. He was well known in literary circles as a writer and poet. Indeed as those who have wished to malign him have since asserted, he seemed almost more French than the French. But, and it is an important but, his return to his African past, his sudden resentment of his own Frenchness and his search for virtue in the African personality was the result of his sudden realisation of the extent of his assimilation by France, though he himself has said that he assimilated, and was not assimilated. Perhaps his dilemma is best illuminated by the experience of Aimé Césaire, the High Priest of *négritude*, who as Senghor is always the first to admit, was his real source of inspiration for this return to the past. The story goes that Césaire, a West Indian living for long in Paris, and already distinguished as a man of letters, was travelling in a train, when he found himself sitting next to a black marine. His first racial reaction was that of a white man. This horrified him so much that he returned to his native West Indies to 'rediscover' himself, and wrote a series of poems, that have become as it were the hymns of *négritude*. Senghor subsequently became the fulcrum of the new movement to assert the uniqueness and value of the Negro personality. Ulli Beier, reviewing Senghor's poetry, has written: 'Senghor is not merely a Frenchified African who tries to give exotic interest to his French poems; he is an African who uses the French language to express his African soul.'

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powers were devolved on the individual territories, it is clear that a desire to avoid any ultimate break-up of the French Union was one of the main factors behind the emasculation of the federal executive. French West Africa as a federation might soon be demanding independence; eight small territories on their own would find it a more daunting prospect.

Senghor attacked France vigorously for what he called the balkanising of French Africa by devolving powers on individual territories and at the same time making no provision for an executive at the federal level. The *Grand Conseil* retained only its limited legislative powers. Executive action for the federation was still undertaken by the High Commissioner, representing the Republic. By thus turning politics towards the individual territories, France was 'balkanising' the federation, following the classic pattern of dividing in order to rule. Bitterly, he accused the French of offering Africa 'sucettes et bonbons'. It may seem odd that the role of defending the federation should have fallen on Senghor, who had already failed to convert the *I.O.M.* from an association of deputies into a Pan West African political party. But though the R.D.A. was officially a Pan-African party, its leader came from the rich Ivory Coast, and disliked intensely the ideas of sharing his country's wealth with his many poorer neighbours. He was instrumental in securing the form of *loi cadre* that avoided the creation of a supra-government. On the other hand it might be argued that it was in Senegal's interest to ensure that the federation did not break up, since one of Dakar's *raisons d'être* was as a federal capital. But Senghor argued cogently that only with a strong West Africa, containing twenty million people, could Africans participate with any sense of political equality and weight of personality with France in the proposed Franco-African Community. 'Within the framework of a French federal republic, a French West Africa of 20 million inhabitants can, side by side with the metropolis, form a stable element and develop its own personality.'

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Goree

369 'That must be the Batterie Nord.'

[697] As we passed a gang of prisoners shuffled through its main gates outside which lay rusting cannons, their barrels stopped with cement. In the shade of palm trees at the entrance to the fort a guard played draughts with one of the local inhabitants, whilst the wives of the prisoners washed clothes or prepared their evening meal. Only the grim bars set deep into the dark stonework of the fort indicated that it was used as a prison: otherwise the entrance to the fort was more like the gate of a Moslem city, such was the coming and going.

I took some photographs and remembered with amusement an account of a former Earl of Scarborough's visit to Gorée in his diary, *The Cruise of the African Witch, 1890*:

> 'As I was taking a photo of a part of the island a nigger had the audacity to tell me that no one was allowed to photograph in the neighbourhood of the fort, and when I asked him who he was, he said: "Je suis Français". I sent him about his business and he ran to tell the guard in the fort. Europeanized niggers are obnoxious and often intolerable.'

Eighteen-ninety is a long time ago for Dakar and Gorée, though unhappily in East Africa such sentiments are still not out of date.

As I walked down the rubble-filled streets of the island, the occasional perfectly preserved balcony or heavy wooden shutters conjured up vivid memories of the old colonial society that used to inhabit Gorée. Today fat black mammies lean over the balustrades to hang out their washing whilst their naked children play on the rusty cannons encased in the mud and sand of the pavements. From the Rue de Dakar, with its crumbling houses and elegant street lamps, I could see the skyscrapers of the mainland. Above the harbour, fish hawks glided lazily, swooping suddenly with outstretched talons and amazing precision on their prey, whilst in the water bronzed Frenchmen with underwater diving equipment conducted the same operation with less success. In Europe one rarely remarks upon the contrast between history and the present: the two are so constantly juxtaposed as to be unworthy of comment. Yet in West Africa, where nearly

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Goree

everything seems to have been built within the last half-century, an island like Gorée, full of historical sites, stands to remind one how long Africa and Europe have been in contact. Gorée itself has been controlled by many masters: the Portuguese from 1444–1595, the Dutch 1597–1677; the French and British at intervals from 1677–1817, when the island was finally ceded to the French by the Treaty of Paris. Many famous explorers including Nuno Tristão, Fernando Po, Bartholomew Dias and Vasco da Gama and Christopher Columbus, as well as scholars like Camoens and St. Francis Xavier, stayed on the island. A small church was built by Diogo d'Azembuja, the architect of the fort of Elmina on the Gold Coast. The Dutch used Gorée for their trade with the Gold Coast and India, though later it became to its various owners important as a slaving post, as the gracious Maison des Esclaves, built between 1776–1778, witnesses. I was taken there two years ago by an African guide, through a low, damp tunnel into some squalid little cells whose only source of light was from a small grille facing on to the sea; below was a sheer drop on to Atlantic breakers. Into those cells slavers bundled hundreds of miserable wretches, seized from their villages, as often as not by other Africans. There they were imprisoned, their feet held by the heavy balls and chains that still littered the floor, until a ship was ready to take them to the New World. Often more than half of them died on the Middle Passage, and many died waiting in this house because of cold and damp, or just the lack of will to live.

However, in 1794, when Gorée was in French hands, the Revolutionary Convention abolished slavery, and accordingly deprived Gorée of its main source of income. But in 1802 the law was repealed, only to be reinforced again in 1817, so that ironically Gorée, which had been built into a naval base and the administration headquarters of French West Africa, became a major centre for the suppression of the slave trade.

Towards the end of the century Gorée declined at Dakar's expense. By 1929, from having been one of the Quatre Communes, the others being St. Louis, Rufisque and Dakar, sending representatives to the French National Assembly and enjoying equal rights with Frenchmen, it had so declined in importance that it was incorporated into the Municipality of Dakar.

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369 [633] Today Gorée is a residential suburb of Dakar, where administrators and merchants live. In the hot sun of the afternoon, Gorée, an island of unopened shutters, of lazy negroes passing life away in sleep, and of buildings that look as though they would crumble in one's hands like a hard-baked sand pie, was little more than an historical relic.

Gorée was a dead town. More pathetic, I found, was St. Louis, the capital of the Senegal, which is a dying town. I flew to St. Louis for a week-end, leaving Arnold in Dakar because his attack of dysentery had not yet cleared up.

[361] I loved St. Louis, a quiet little city on an island in the estuary of the river Senegal, which bounds the northern frontier of the territory to which it has given its name. I remembered it clearly from my previous visit, a city with no important industries, and few modern buildings to detract from the quiet serenity of the cool, colonial style houses, heavily shuttered against the fierce sun of the desert. In two years not much had changed. The houses had crumbled a little more, adding to, rather than detracting from its dignity as capital of two territories, a unique honour. The governments of Senegal and neighbouring Mauretania are to be found there.

369 633 But the serenity of this ancient city, which dates back to 1659, that had struck me so forcibly on my first visit two years ago had gone. The Mauretanians' decision to transfer their capital to Nouakchott, in their own territory, was something the St. Louisians could understand, even if it did mean a loss of income to their city. But when their own government decided to move their capital to Dakar, the Federal Capital, the population was profoundly shocked. I found them extremely bitter about it. The provincial calm of the city was for once shattered, and its inhabitants had but one topic—the transfer—and the prospect of seeing their city die, for St. Louis depends largely on the administration for its income.

One man told me with extreme bitterness: 'Dakar has killed Gorée and Rufisque. Now it will kill us.' Since the creation of a port at Dakar, the chief *raison d'être* of St. Louis has been as an administrative centre. Take away the administration and the town could not survive.

My first afternoon in St. Louis I saw M. Valdiodio N'Diaye,

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Acting Prime Minister of the Senegal, and cousin of Pierre Njie in Bathurst. I asked him what his party would do to save St. Louis from becoming a second Gorée. N'Diaye replied confidently: 'My government intends to build up St. Louis as a new and prosperous economic centre for the Senegal valley, just as Kaolak is the centre of the Saloum and Zuiginchor of the Casamance. We plan to build a great dam at Dagana which will open up the Senegal to extensive cultivation and St. Louis will not die. Of course the money for the dam will have to come from France. You see,' M. N'Diaye continued, 'St. Louis is really rather absurdly placed, lying at the extreme north and the extreme west of the territory. It is "doublement periphique", whilst Dakar is the economic centre of the Senegal.

'Already, of course, the transfer is proving more difficult than they thought,' a member of an old and respected St. Louisian family told me. 'There is little enough room in Dakar as it is without moving the Senegalese Government there. They'll have to take hotels over for ministries. I don't think this transfer is necessary. After all, America has its Washington and New York, Switzerland its Berne and Geneva. Why should not Senegal have its St. Louis and Dakar? If they carry out this transfer, St. Louis will be little more than an historical souvenir like Gorée.'

M. Babacar Saye, Mayor of St. Louis and member of the Opposition party, told me with considerable feeling: 'St. Louis has played a great part in the history of the Senegal. Even if it has lost the opportunity of economic development as a port to Dakar, it is the spiritual head of the Senegal. If St. Louis had not existed in the history of the Senegal and French West Africa there would be no Federation today. It has been a bastion of fidelity to France. St. Louisians penetrated every corner of West Africa on her behalf. It has had an immense moral and psychological influence on the present good relations between France and West Africa.'

This attitude I found supported by a young African official from Dahomey, whom I met in the Ministry of Finance. He had travelled all over French West and Equatorial Africa. 'The Senegal,' he said, 'has always been at the head of politics in French West Africa. It has been the *avant-garde* of all Black Africa. After all it was the first to send black Deputies like Blaise Diagne to the

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Metropolis. Until recently the African élite has always come from St. Louis. It is a sort of spiritual centre of Black Africa. It had the first school—Lycée Faidherbe. And in 1866 it was given the first Hotel de Ville of the French Union. It is the cradle of the French Union. It would be a tragedy if it died.'

To such men as these it seems scandalous that St. Louis with its great history and traditions should give way to a parvenue like Dakar. Of all West African cities St. Louis is the one with the most illustrious and fascinating history. It was called St. Louis after the great French King, Louis XIII, in the middle of the seventeenth century. However, in the following century it began to expand into a town whose inhabitants were a distinct race, comparable to the Creoles of Sierra Leone. White and black intermarried to form a group known as the St. Louisians. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries these were the great families of the Senegal, though today they are losing importance. Names like Carpot, Descanet, Deves, Guillabert and Crespin are still remembered with respect in St. Louis.

By the end of the eighteenth century the town had more than 7,000 inhabitants and in 1778 a mayor, who had to be chosen from the local population, was charged with the maintenance of good relations between the people and the Governor. In 1833 all inhabitants of St. Louis were given the status of French citizens.

Perhaps the most important date for St. Louis and for West Africa was 1854, when General Faidherbe was appointed Governor. Today his mark is still firmly on St. Louis. The ordered layout of the city and its streets were his work. The large bridge connecting the island on which St. Louis stands to the mainland is named after him. The city's most important and famous school is the Lycée Faidherbe. And even now one can listen to old folk sitting on the benches of the park, in which his statue stands, telling tales of the great General, who had fought against the famous Toucouleur chief, El Hadj Omar and brought Senegal, Soudan and Mauretania into the French orbit. Perhaps some of these old people are his own descendants, for he is reputed to have been a prolific father.

By 1878 St. Louis had grown to a city of 16,000 inhabitants, and despite the rapid expansion of Dakar and Rufisque farther down the coast, there was little to worry about the future.

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down the coast, there was little to worry about the future. And the creation of the Federal Government there marked its apogee. Five years later when the Federal Government was transferred to Dakar, St. Louis began its long decline which, when the Government is transferred, will be final.

As I walked along the old streets of St. Louis recalling vividly New Orleans, past old houses, their plaster façades beautiful with the patina of a century, and along the river that divides the island from the mainland with its brightly painted fishing boats, I could sympathize with the inhabitants of St. Louis. I could understand their pride; and their fears that their city might die. But at the same time the Government's desire to move into the economic centre of Senegal and the Administrative centre of the Federation, seemed to me a realistic one.

ECONOMICS OF THE REVOLUTION

I returned to Dakar for an appointment with the High Commissioner of French West Africa whose office was on the ninth floor of the Administrative building. When I arrived I was shown into a small ante-room by a messenger dressed in khaki.

'The High Commissioner will see you soon,' he assured me.

Within two minutes a similarly dressed messenger beckoned me towards a large swing door. I pulled it open, only to be confronted by another, a foot in front of me. I pushed this open, and entered a large, well-windowed room. For a moment I could see no one. Then a tall, grey-haired man, looking very much like a university professor, came forward towards me, his right hand outstretched. M. Gaston Cusin, High Commissioner for French West Africa, led me to a large chair and, with a degree of informality that put me entirely at ease, he began to talk of the problems of French West Africa. To him, a former Director of Economic Affairs in France, it was clear that West Africa was largely an economic problem. He pointed to a large map of West Africa:

'We are hoping to develop iron reserves here in Mauretania; there in Guinea we want to open up bauxite reserves, in Dahomey

8:Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960
MS37 Senegal MS37

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Even at this juncture, however, effects of the distinction between old and recent cities are apparent. The growth of the old slave-trade cities took place in two stages. In the first, there was a fairly slow tempo of growth in which the elements comprising the city were united into a relatively integrated whole. In the second stage, corresponding to the recent colonial period, population growth was much more rapid; new strata of city-dwellers appeared, so numerous that the original city could not effectively assimilate them. A series of problems arose from the relations between the comparatively stable nucleus and the weakly-structured host of new arrivals. In Senegal these relations were originally hostile, yet played an important role in certain phases of urban political life.

The complexity of the principal traits of political phenomena in the framework of the colonial cities is suggested in the following discussion.

The Traditional and Modern Frameworks

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African urban centers were established more or less wholly beyond the limits of traditional political units.[2] They were distinguished by novel activities and functions, quickly acquired a cosmopolitan aspect, and received a meager administrative organization. As privileged centers for Europeans, they could hardly survive except through a system of direct administration, and withdrew more or less rapidly from the local, pre-European political systems and authorities, which were in no way equipped to absorb them. Yet political problems of the traditional sort were not entirely excluded from urban life. In certain cases the territory of an indigenous political system was largely or wholly incorporated by the city, and officially recognized.[3] Colonial authorities at first assumed only the radi-

[P. 4A]

8:Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960
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369 cally new functions that the old system
●633 could not manage, but this phase of internal autonomy was brief. The new government progressively assumed all political functions, and the population of the
642 city became diversified. Effective operation of the traditional authority was then
633 limited to the one ethnic group that henceforth furnished its members. Nevertheless, despite its increasingly ambiguous position and more and more purely formal character, despite the fact that it had no genuine initiative, traditional authority continued to play a role in urban life. Old political systems eventually were used by the modern political organizations as one of the props for their own action, and conversely, some traditional authorities attempted to reinforce their declining influence by insinuating themselves into a new political role.

[369] These interactions merit attention. In effect, traditional political forms were taken over into the framework of urban life, though in rudimentary outline. This was the case in ethnic group and ward organization, for example, which involved the institutions of "ward-chiefery" and "race-chiefery." These were often developed spontaneously, sometimes assuming a clandestine nature. In other cases such organizational forms were encouraged and given official recognition. Some were created out of whole cloth by the colonial authority, which saw in them an effective means for regulating populations still poorly integrated into the framework that it was striving to establish.[4] The role of authorities having traditional origins quickly became secondary, of course, but it has raised contradictions that make the study of interpenetration between traditional and modern political frameworks an essential one.

[P. 4 B]

8: Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960 MS37 Senegal MS37

[P. 4 C]
[Footnote 4 continued on P 5C - Analyst]

[2] Their territory, at least in the case of the oldest cities, was often the object of a "concession" by local authorities, and was therefore withdrawn from their direct control.

[3] This is the case, for example, of Lagos; regarding Dakar, where the authorities of the "Republic of Lebou" had their seat, *cf.* C. Michel, "L'organisation coutumière (sociale et politique) de la communauté Laboue de Dakar," *Bull. du Comité d'Et. hist. et sci. de l'A.O.F.*, March 17, 1934; and C. Faure, *Histoire de la presqu'île du Cap-Vert et des origins de Dakar*, Paris, 1914.

[4] G. Balandier, in *Sociologie des Brazzavilles noires* (Paris, 1955) shows clearly the occurrence there of "a transfer onto an urban milieu of leadership agencies already existing in a rural milieu: the

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8: Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960 MS37 Senegal MS37

[p.56]

hierarchy of administrator-mayor, administrator-deputy mayor, and ward leader corresponds to the hierarchy of regional leader, district leader, and cantonal leader" (p. 169). The contradictions that he points out in the administrative organization of Brazzaville were sharper still at Dakar: the institution of appointed ward leaders coexisted with that of an elected city government, whose relations with the colonial administration did not differ in principle from those of French city governments with prefectoral authority.

[5] *Cf.* P. Mercier, "Evolution des élites sénégalaises," *Bull. intl. des Sci. soc.*, VIII (#4, '56).
Groupement européen de Dakar: orientations d'une enquête," *Cahiers intl. de Soc.* XIX, 1955.
[6] *Cf. Infra.*, and the Summary Notes Given in P. Mercier, "Aspects de la Société Africaine" and "Le
[7] *Cf.* B. G. M. Sundkler, *Bantu Prophets in South Africa*, London, 1948; and G. Balandier, *Sociologie actuelle de l'Afrique noire*, Paris, 1955.

643 9336 [113]

8:Mercier E-5 (ca.1955) 1960
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Political Development In The Cities of Senegal

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In all of West Africa, the phenomenon of urbanization has been most extensive and the variety of its forms most striking in Senegal. The area has about ten communities with more than 10,000 inhabitants each; five of these have well over 30,000 inhabitants and the major urban center, Dakar, has almost 250,000 inhabitants. The urban population exceeds 500,000, about one quarter of the total population. The present urban pattern has no link with a pre-European tradition. Some of the cities wield influence over extensive suburban zones, and the distances separating them are relatively short, so that the western half of Senegal is covered by a close network of urban centers.

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Partial administration of municipal affairs and familiarity with electoral machinery are by no means recent acquisitions. The first African communes "with full powers"[11] were created in Senegal, in the second half of the 19th century, and there the first "mixed communes"[12] were developed, at the beginning of the 20th century. Among all the French West African territories, Senegal contained the largest number of constituted communes, and alone had almost a quarter of the communes with full powers created in all French Overseas Territories by the law of 1956. As early as 1925 there were 18 communes, of which four had full autonomy. The exercise of political rights in modern form dates back more than 75 years for some cities, and by 1953 there were elected municipal councils in 14 of the 20 mixed communes in Senegal.

[p. 6 B]

8: Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960 MS37 Senegal MS37

[8] These facts were studied by M. Hunter, *Reaction to Conquest*, London, 1936, among others.
[9] *Cf., infra.*, summary historical comments regarding the development of citizenship in the oldest Senegalese settlements.
[10] After 1956, changes occurred more rapidly. There were profound transformations in the orientations of political parties, in the organization of unions, etc. These transformations acquired greater significance in the new legislative and constitutional frameworks instituted in 1957 and subsequently.
[11] These had an organization patterned after that of French communes, even though the conditions under which they operated were not always comparable. It was not until 1956, 75 years later, that communes were established in territories other than Senegal.
[12] These were all characterized by the fact that their mayor was a representative of the French colonial administration. There were various types, according to whether the city council was entirely appointed, or partially or entirely elected. Between the two wars they expanded rapidly outside Senegal.

[P. 6 C]

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8:Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960
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"The Four Communes of Senegal"

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The four coastal cities have had the longest experience with political rights. All are fairly old; Dakar was founded most recently, in 1857. St. Louis of Senegal, founded in the time of the slave-trade, is the oldest, and a typical example of the "old colonial city." In 1659 a warehouse of the Company of the Senegal was built on the site, the first French settlement in the region. It was a commercial post oriented toward the river, and a small military outpost; it became the jumping-off place for the conquest of the African territories. The general traits of the old African city may still be found in St. Louis' central section, despite recent changes. In such a center the African population was relatively stable.[13] A few European families established residence, and a rather important mixed-blood population developed. By the mid-19th century an urban community with a homogeneous way of life had emerged.

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The Isle of Gorée, which became the second commune in Senegal, was occupied in 1677; it was oriented toward the Petite-Cote and the factories of Rufisque, Joal, and Portudal. Of these, only Rufisque developed; it became the third commune. St. Louis and Gorée underwent many vicissitudes before 1815, when they were restored to France. They then returned to "legal" commerce, which was centered in the valley of the Senegal. St. Louis retained its dominance. By the end of the 18th century it had had nearly 7,000 inhabitants, about half of whom were free and almost a tenth European. In the 1870's its population was about 15,000, while Gorée had but 3,000; Rufisque was growing as was Dakar. Finally, the interior back of the Petite-Cote was opening up, and Thiès was founded. In the following period St.

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8:Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960
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369 Louis stagnated[14] and Gorée declined,
633 losing people at the expense of Dakar and
175 Rufisque; Rufisque grew rapidly, as the
[162] port for the ground-nut. Dakar entered
[439] a period of prosperity at the turn of the century.[15] During the late 19th century the composition of the population already was beginning to change fairly rapidly, especially in the expanding centers, but the old core of urban population continued to hold a dominant place, not only in urban life but also in the colony of Senegal as a whole, whose constitution had come into effect. The people of St. Louis most notably served as essential instruments of the colonization effort.

This dominance was expressed very clearly in the political realm. The coastal cities, in contrast to the interior cities and rural areas, had been introduced to the structure and organization through which modern political life is conducted long before the reforms of 1946. Political activity of the modern type was first limited to the European settlers but was
[563] soon extended to the mixed-blood element and then to the Negro population. Beginning in the late 18th century, St. Louis had a mayor, always a mixed-blood, who served as intermediary between the governor and the populace. In 1789 the
[668] colony participated in metropolitan political activities, sending to the States-General a petition of grievances that demanded commercial freedom — *i.e.*, abolition of the Company monopoly — and the end of slavery. A satisfactory agreement was reached among employees of the Company, European businessmen, and mixed-blood businessmen, but it was never brought to fruition; a period of disorder set in and persisted until the rebirth of the colony in 1815.

[641] In 1833 French citizenship was conferred upon all free inhabitants of St. Louis and Gorée by royal decree. Citizenship was extended to all inhabitants of

8: Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960 MS37 Senegal MS37

[13] We have observed that in such cases a "people belonging to the city" emerged. Their ties with their birthplaces were more or less completely severed.
[14] It had scarcely 20,000 inhabitants in 1920, but its growth resumed in the 1930's. In 1954 it had a population of 39,000.
[15] With the creation of a harbor, which captured the trade of Rufisque, whose modernization appeared impossible, and the installation of the government-general of French West Africa, established in 1895.

[p.7]

[Illegible]

8:Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960
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the two cities with the abolition of slavery in 1848.[16] The four coastal cities were elevated to the status of communes with full powers between 1872 and 1887, and the organization of political life on a European pattern in the four communes crystalized the opposition between the citizens of the old settlements and the subjects of the territories in the newly-conquered interior. The cities alone provided apprenticeship in public life and in the representative system. Beginning in 1871 they elected a deputy to the French Parliament. In 1879 they elected a Council-general patterned after those in France, supposedly to represent all Senegal. It actually represented only the few urban centers, whose interests at the time diverged widely from those of the rest of Senegal. An effort was subsequently made to repair this breach by transforming the Council-general into a colonial council, consisting of representatives elected by the citizens and representatives for the non-citizens appointed by the *notables*.[17] This reduced conflicts scarcely at all. Meanwhile, citizenship acquired new importance. At first it was established by local law and had no effect in other French territories. Not until 1916 did the "natives of the four communes" receive full French citizenship while still being able to retain their personal status. These citizens were few in number: scarcely 80,000 in 1939, about 100,000 in the 1950's. The cities tended to include more non-citizens than citizens as they grew. Actual participation in politics developed only gradually. At the first legislative elections, in 1871, only a third of those registered voted, and the rate dropped to less than a fifth

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369 in some years. Since the beginning of the
633 20th century, however, urban citizens
175 have taken an increasingly lively interest
[666] in political matters.[18]

In this restricted political system the
563 relative importance of the roles played by
668 different ethnic groupings and different
cities varied continuously. Ethnic dominance, first held by the old European families, passed gradually to mixed-blood society, which came into being in the 18th century and rapidly acquired wealth, education, and influence. By the mid-19th century mixed-bloods made up the majority of the westernized population. But the entry of the emancipated slaves,
[166] the first sizable migration toward the
cities, quickly reduced the mixed-bloods to a minority. In 1900 they numbered
[162] less than 5,000 in the four communes together, though for several decades their economic and political influence remained quite disproportionate to their num-
668 bers. Among the cities, St. Louis was
[369] predominant until WW I. At the beginning of the century it practically controlled the deputation to the French legislature and the Council-general — and hence the economic life of the territory. Then Gorée-Dakar came to the fore;[19] in 1914 a citizen of Gorée, Blaise Diagne, was elected deputy, followed by Galandou Diouf and Lebou. These men
[645] were the first elected Senegalese to win
broad support at Paris; Diagne himself was appointed a Secretary of State [a subministerial post, equivalent to a U.S. Under-Secretary]. In Senegal, the au-
[642] thority of elected officials — deputies and
Councillors-general — increased, and clashes with the civil administration were frequent.[20]

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8: Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960 MS37 Senegal MS37

[16] Which nearly tripled the number of citizens, who henceforth comprised a body that was more heterogeneous but less completely "assimilated."
[17] Translator's note: the *notables* were influential residents appointed to high political offices in the interior by the local representative of French government.
[18] Especially after 1914, when there appeared a particularly dynamic personnage, Blaise Diagne, whose popularity was widespread.
[19] Dakar absorbed Gorée in 1929. The latter was reestablished as a separate commune in 1956.
[20] At first — at the end of the 19th century — these were conflicts between the merchants, upholding the interests of their agencies, and the civil administration, then engaged in an expansionist policy in West Africa, whose advantages the former could not see. Not until recent years did these conflicts change very much in character.

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8:Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960
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The Growth of Political Parties

668 This political tradition explains why the changes in Senegal after 1946 took a unique coloring, and why Senegal's subsequent political history has been considerably different from that of other French West African territories. The political changes instituted after WW II [633] represented in part a loss of privileged position for the four communes, though they continued to play a dominant role for several years.[21] This was one of the factors that made the period 1946-1956 one of transition.

668 665 One important development was the appearance of well-structured political parties. Pre-war political life had been characterized by clusters of followers assembled about influential leaders, in a framework that somewhat resembled that of a "republic of notables." This pattern was still common in 1946; the nature of parties changed only gradually. On the other hand, political life broadened to include the whole territory. The long-standing predominance enjoyed by the coastal cities persisted for a few years but the weight of their electorate fell rapidly.[22] The emerging ideologies and the newly-founded political organizations were oriented toward the satisfaction of wants quite different from those typical of the old urban populations. But the models and the leaders that the latter had produced retained an influence that greatly exceeded their geographic limits, and in the cities they receded only slowly before the growth of a political life with different roots.

The fact that the post-war institutional developments were not transplanted to virgin soil had two contradictory results. On the one hand, a political party that was merely a branch of a

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8:Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960
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665 369 cause of this peculiarity, described previously, there were secondary causes, of ethnic, religious, and other natures. Their action contributed to the blurring of lines between the party groups. These facts explain, for example, why the B.D.S., until its recent changes, was unable despite great efforts to change the nature of urban politics. Only the broad action of new factors that were felt considerably beyond the frontiers of Senegal, from 1956 on, brought some change.

These widespread occurrences affected chiefly the two large parties. The other parties, the M.P.S. and U.D.S., which had developed from the schism in the R.D.A., had a quite different nature. They were parties of activists, and in Senegalese political life had only secondary importance. The successes of the R.D.A. elsewhere in West Africa, even during 1956-1957, had only feeble repercussions in Senegal. This fact had many causes, which cannot be studied here. By contrast, the S.F.I.O. and the B.D.S. were tending to become, in terms of number, parties with mass support; their cores were made up as much by "*notables*" and "elected agents" as by activists. The struggle between these two parties continued to dominate the stage, if not in all Senegal, at least in the cities and in certain rural districts.[35] In some cases it took extremely violent forms.

666 665 369 633 [599] Pre-election riots were common between 1946 and 1956. Even in 1957, rather serious incidents marked the reorganization of the commune of Dakar, before the last municipal elections.[36] For the first time, elements of the B.D.S. (now the Senegalese Populist Bloc, or B.P.S.) won strong representation in the city council, previously dominated without opposition by the S.F.I.O. (now the African Socialist Movement — M.S.A.); an outburst of partisan passions marked

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8: Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960 MS37 Senegal MS37

[35] Where the rivalry, furthermore, was chiefly between the "outposts," in this case more or less connected with the tradition of the "old cities," and the surrounding countryside.
[36] The separation of Gorée and the anticipated electoral redistricting had persuaded the civil administration to dissolve the municipal council and to replace it during the electoral period with a bipartisan municipal commission.
[37] Particularly in their activity as electoral agents.
[38] In a general way, these goals showed a much more definite "nationalist" potential.

[P. 12 C]

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665 tems. At Dakar, the powers of the "sé-
●[633] *rigne*" and of the dignitaries of the former "Lebou Republic" were continued, although they gradually lost their importance.[40] The parties were careful to keep these leading figures among their clientele. As a result there were some rather complex manipulations concerning nominations and successions. A nomination accepted by one party was more or less openly contested by the other. Hence the relatively frequent bifurcation of power: opposing the dignitary who had received official recognition was another who maintained himself as pretender, with the support of the party that had backed his candidacy. Such events stood
[667] out even more sharply among ward leaders, who depended most directly upon the party that controlled the city government. Their support was more or less confined to the voters of this party. Hence certain wards had clandestine ward leaders, around whom the members of the opposition party could gather. Of course, such phenomena have accelerated the deterioration of these institutions.

793 (2) In the religious field, control over
665 chiefs of the great Moslem brotherhoods similarly has been at stake in intense struggles between the parties. This was particularly true of the main brotherhood in Senegal, that of the Tidjanes.
[369] This problem has been centered outside Dakar and the other coastal cities, but has had important repercussions in these cities. The rivalries that apparently have always surrounded the choice of the caliph of the Tidjanes were intensified and acquired a greater impact, in proportion as the fundamental hostility of the parties was openly associated with
[788] them. Violent incidents involving political enemies occurred even on pilgrimages to Tivaouane, where the caliph resides; they contributed to the prolongation of conflicts within the caliph's family. Well-meaning interference by re-

8: Mercier E-5 (ca. 1955) 1960 MS37 Senegal MS37

[39] We found, for example, that extended family groups with some degree of solidarity might be divided in political views. This caused severe tensions, but rarely breaks.

[40] *Cf.* C. Michel, *op. cit.* The civil administration continued to grant some prominence to the *sérigne* of Dakar, and ultimately used him as a propaganda agent in some of its activities outside Senegal.

[P. 13C]

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175 369 [712] name of France by the post-captain Protet, who materialized this taking of possession by the construction of a protective fort, from which outfitting soon began. Work on the port began in [505] 1862, and, on 4 November 1866, the first accomplishments were inaugurated by the first passage of a packet-boat. As early [504] as the first of April 1864, the lighthouse of the Grande-Mamelle was lighted, followed two years later, on the first of December 1866, by the two lighthouses with fixed lights at Cape Manuel and the Pointe des Almadies /Cape Almadies/. A first plan for the future city was approved by the decree of 1 July 1862, while from this time on a plan for a railroad to link Dakar and Saint-Louis agitated opinion.

Nevertheless, despite these efforts, the launching of Dakar, put under the administrative guidance of Gorée, was difficult; the city was unpopulated, the Goréans monopolizing the lands without wanting to leave their island. Moreover, Rufisque, closer to the regions where groundnuts were cultivated, was better located for commerce with the interior and, because of this, contributed to blocking the development of Dakar. But [633] the decree of 17 June 1887 separating Dakar from Gorée marked a decisive turning point (1885) in the life of the new creation.

369 2. Dakar, metropolis before being a city. Having become an autonomous center as a result of the Conference of Berlin, at a period when the colonial rivalries between the great powers were accentuated, Dakar benefited from the effective support /376/ of a mother country determined to make it a base for its expansion in West Africa.

504 369 It was the port in particular that was to be the essential instrument of the launching and of the power of Dakar. Its first elements constructed shortly after the occupation were clearly insufficient, and as early as 1892 it was necessary to extend the old embankment by 200 meters and to add on to it a pier of 280 meters (present Pier III). But it was especially from 1899 that [712] the great works began. The military port, which had to serve as

[i.e., the port of Dakar--Analyst]

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369 439 504 that Dakar is designated above all as a port d'escale, "a service station," of the tropical Atlantic, provisioning the ships with water and, above all, combustibles; the latter, represented in former times by coal in particular, are now almost entirely made up of hydrocarbides, the export and import traffic of which sometimes represents more than double that of merchandise: 211.1% in 1954, 233.6% in 1955, 186% in 1959.

369 439 487 But, beyond this role as a port d'escale, Dakar thrust ahead as a metropolis, governing a large region. In fact it is via Dakar that food products (rice, flour, sugar, etc.), cloth and thread, industrial products, etc. come in, principally destined for Senegal, Mauritania, and the Sudan, which, in return, send groundnuts, gum, hides wax, etc. to it for export. This situation is the result of struggles in the recent past between Dakar and the old maritime or river ports which shared the light traffic of former times. [505] The construction of the port and modern means of communication with the interior permitted Dakar to eliminate its rivals very quickly.

369 [505] The establishment of Gorée, caught in a crisis since the abolition of slavery, despite the resistance, at first active and then passive, of its municipality (13), has been practically

[113] 13. In the work by J. Charpy (La Fondation de Dakar /The Founding of Dakar/, Larose, Paris, 1958), there is a series of documents on the various aspects of this resistance.

eliminated from the economic circuit since the accomplishment of the great work of the commercial port. Business then emigrated [162] to the continent, while the city went to sleep, losing more and more of its population; from 3,200 inhabitants in 1872, it went to 2,068 in 1891, 1,249 in 1910, 998 in 1921, so that the commune was abolished and attached to Dakar in 1929, and then [633] the entire island was classified as a historical monument in 1944.

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369 The reconstitution of the municipality in 1956, a simple elec-
633 toral operation, proved /378/ /Fig. 2 appears here/ to be incapable of giving life to Gorée; at the beginning of 1961 it was forced to reattach itself to Dakar, for which it is nothing more than a tourist annex. Nevertheless, due to the crisis in housing
[362] in Dakar, it offers its old houses to workers from the victorious great city.

369 The elimination of the other rival centers was not as easy,
505 but no less radical. The railroad linking Dakar and Saint-Louis,
496 finished in 1885, did not immediately bring about the decline
487 of the old Senegalese capital. On the contrary, asleep since entry up the river became impossible because of the increase in tonnage of the ships, it seems to have gained a revival of activity, especially after the construction of the Kayes-Niger section of
[439] the railroad at the end of the century. In fact the products destined for the Sudan or coming from there, which took the path of the Senegal River, were subjected to an obligatory freight-break there, which made Saint-Louis a quite important mart. But the construction of the Thiès-Kayes railroad after the First World War and the /379/development of automobile traffic had the effect, on the one hand, of directly annexing the Sudan to the zone of influence of Dakar, and, on the other hand, of isolating Saint-Louis and the old escales /trading centers/ of the Senegal River and accelerating their economic decline (Fig. 2).
369 Bakel, Matam, Podor, and Dagana are no more than administra-
[633] tive centers without any great economic activity. Saint-Louis, continuing as the capital of Senegal, preserved an appearance of vitality longer. But in 1957 Dakar robbed it of this function to the great despair of its population, which, after a phase of violent opposition, complains today in a passive resistance that the tokens of sympathy and the promises expressed a thousand times in the official speeches of the state authorities do not come to anything.

369 As for Rufisque, for a long time it had more economic
505 trump cards than Dakar. In fact, when the port had not yet been
439 constructed at Dakar, it was more advantageous to load the

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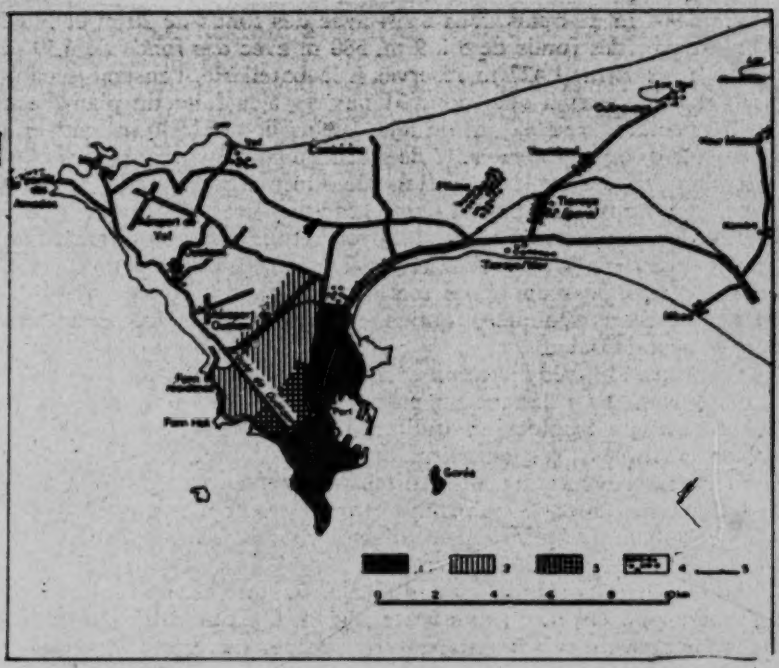

Fig. 2. The quarters of Dakar. --1. Dakar-ville and the industrial zone; 2. Greater Dakar; 3. Médina; 4. villages of the suburbs; 5. railroads.

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[441] groundnuts at Rufisque, nearer to the centers of production in Cayor. Therefore Rufisque soon became the groundnut capital. As early as 1862, 27 European or Goréan merchants were established there (and 12 at Bargny, located three kilometers farther to the east). Three years later, this figure climbed to 35 (14).

14. Note 1 in Fondation de Dakar, op. cit., p. 328.

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633 The activity at Rufisque was so great and the launching of Dakar so

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369 difficult that the commandant of Gorée, Pinet-Laprade, in a [redacted] 9 May 1862 (15), proposed to the governor of Senegal

15. Archives of the G. G. A. O. F. 4 B 20, 13 G 299, L 9, in Fondation de Dakar, op. cit., pp. 327-329.

that the authority of the settlement of Rufisque be abolished in order to avoid stifling Dakar. Evidently Pinet-Laprade was not followed, and the declassing of Rufisque, which nevertheless was to intervene later, was the result of a bitter struggle. As
369 soon as it was possible to draw up alongside the quay at the port
505 of Dakar, Rufisque lost the advantage of its situation, which had
504 permitted a saving, in relation to Dakar, of some 30 kilometers of land travel. Actually, this drawing up to the quay by the ships avoided the slow transshipments which caused a great loss of
[633] time at Rufisque. Therefore, as early as about 1930, Rufisque had been declassed; in 1933, after the construction of the groundnut platform at the port of Dakar, it did not load more than 10% of the harvest of Senegal, as against 28% at Dakar. Today no maritime loading is done at Rufisque, and the city maintains some economic activity only by grace of a new orientation tending to make it an industrial annex of Dakar.

369 Thus, the elimination of rivals has resulted in a tendency
505 for all of the activity of collecting the products of Senegal,
439 Mauritania, and the Sudan to be concentrated at a single pole. Only two ports, Kaolack and Ziguinchor, have succeeded in maintaining themselves /380/ and even developing themselves as ports of direct importation and exportation. In 1933 Kaolack exported 52% of the Senegalese harvest of groundnuts, and Ziguinchor nearly 10%, while Dakar had only 28%. Specifically, in addition to a regional exportation equal to half of the Senegalese harvest, Kaolack handled the rail shipments of a large part of the production of eastern Senegal and even of the Sudan. In the case of Ziguinchor, it handled the production of Casamance, which has no other export port. Today the conversion of the

/380 cont./

at Dakar.

Even more than in the sphere of aviation, however, it is on the commercial and industrial plane that the other states of former French West Africa were, before the recent political disturbances, dependent on Dakar. In fact Dakar was the seat of the banks and of the commercial associations or the branch agencies of the mother country, all of whom /Pl. XXI and XXII appear here on unnumbered pages/ /381/exercise from Dakar, if not always a role of direct administration, at least some co-ordination and in any case an influence that is not negligible on the branches scattered across Senegal, former French West Africa, and sometimes even across foreign territories. Thus, the C. F. A. O., the S. C. O. Z., the B. A. O., and the B. C. A., which practice their activities in practically all of Black Africa, although having their seat in Paris, are strongly established in Dakar, from where they manage a number of agencies and branches. On the other hand, the Société Maurel et Prom, which has branches in Senegal, Mauritania, the Sudan, Guinea, and Gambia, the "Commerce Africain," which has establishments in Senegal, Gambia, the Ivory Coast, and the Cameroun, and other companies have their seat in Dakar (17). Moreover it must be added that several in-

17. "Le Commerce Africain" transferred its seat from Dakar to Paris in July 1960.

dustries (oil factories, soap factories, breweries, cement factories, textile factories, shoe factories, etc.) established on the peninsula of Cape Verde send a part of their products to other territories in former French West Africa.

Finally, because of its former function as federal capital, Dakar brought together all of the federal political and administrative organs, which permitted it to direct and co-ordinate all of the political, administrative, and economic life of former French West Africa.

Thus, Dakar became the leader, the undisputed metropolis, upon which there depended a regional assemblage much

[Text continues on p. 17--Analyst]

/381 cont./

369 larger than that of Paris. In Dakar, this function as a metrop-
648 olis, which has been confirmed since the construction of the
633 commercial port, preceded and conditioned the development of the city.

369 3. The city. The commercial affairs which thus make
166 African products and products from the outside converge toward
167 the Dakar crossroads could not fail to bring with them a great
[487] number of people. First, there are the Goréans, finally resigned to their fate, who accompany or follow the commercial or administrative establishments being transferred to Dakar; then, non-Africans, administrators, technicians, merchants, etc., usually arriving from Europe by the same route as that of the imported manufactured products. But above all there are the masses who arrive by road and by rail, by these paths of a money economy which have greatly disturbed the villagers' traditional institutions and thus communicated to the people a mobility formerly unknown in the rural world. Willingly or unwillingly, the rural people of Senegal, of the Sudan, of Upper Guinea, and of the Upper Volta take to the road and rails to cast themselves into an /382/ /Fig. 3 appears here/ /383/ adventurous existence which will lead many of them to Dakar and to settle there. Finally, Africans from Guinea, the Ivory Coast, and Dahomey, students at the large educational institutions and officials who come in connection with the functions of the federal capital, also arrive by sea.

369 This human convergence, which since the last decade of
162 the century has continued to grow, has caused a vertiginous increase in the population. To be sure, for the period before 1955
[633] there were only estimations, all the less certain because the boundaries of the commune have often changed, but the official figures (18), even though they should be corrected here or

[113] 18. Synthèse de la situation économique de l'ex-A.O.F. durant la période 1948 à

/383 cont./

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[113]

1958, op. cit., Vol. I, p. 35: 1910, 24,000; 1921, 32,000; 1931, 54,000; 1945, 132,000; 1955-56, 231,000.

[633] there, nevertheless give an acceptable idea of the direction of the development of the population of Dakar. The first 20 years that followed the construction of the port were characterized by a not very spectacular progression, the population merely having doubled, going from 24,900 in 1910 to 54,000 in 1931. This relative slowness of growth should undoubedly be attributed to some check due to the First World War, but it is basically explained by the then very imcomplete [496] character of the modern paths of penetration, the railroads from Thiès to Kayes and from Louga to Linguère not having been finished until after the war. By contrast, the progression has been particularly rapid in the 20 years that followed, and, in spite of the checks that would seemingly have been put into operation by the Second World War, the population has more than quadrupled between 1931 and 1955, reaching 230,000 inhabitants at the latter date (19).

[113] 19. Recensement démographique de Dakar 1955. Résultats définitifs, 1er fascicule /Demographic census of Dakar for 1955. Final Results, No. 1/. Publication of the Service de la statistique de l'ex-A.O.F., July 1958. The following figures given for the population of Dakar have been taken from this number or have been calculated from the figures that it gives.

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This Dakar population, very diverse in its make-up, is an almost complete sampling of the ethnic groups of Senegal, to which are added elements from the other territories of former French West Africa and also some non-Africans. Thus, jostling

[Text continues on P. 20--Analyst]

22: Winterbotham et al. K-4 (no date) 1944 MS37 Senegal MS 37

CHAPTER VIII

SENEGAL AND THE DISTRICT OF DAKAR

1. GENERAL

Senegal. Area: 77,220 square miles. Population (1937): 1,666,374. Density per square mile: 21·58. Capital: St. Louis.

District of Dakar. Area: 66 square miles. Population (1937): 126,929. Density per square mile: 1,923·16. Headquarters: Dakar.

ALTHOUGH it has fewer inhabitants than most of the other colonies and a lower density of population than Dahomey or the Ivory Coast, Senegal is the most important of all the members of the Federation. Much of the colony is semi-desert, but the remainder is closely settled by some of the most vigorous and progressive peoples of French West Africa. Most of the native citizens are Senegalese, and the fame of the tirailleurs is known in every land. The colony contains some of the earliest French settlements, and its honourable position is attested by the fact that it alone in the Federation sends a direct representative to the Chamber of Deputies at Paris.

The full title of the District of Dakar is the *Circonscription de Dakar et Dépendences*. Besides the town of Dakar it includes Goree, Rufisque, the territory round them, and a few small enclaves inside Senegal. One of these enclaves is at Sebikotane, where is situated the William Ponty School. The District has been a separate political entity since 1924, and its Administrator is not responsible to the Governor of Senegal.

The British colony of the Gambia has all its land frontiers with Senegal.

The greatest distance from north to south in Senegal is 249 miles, and the greatest from west to east is 365 miles. The colony extends from 12° 19′ N. to 16° 42′ N. and from 17° 20′ W. to 11° 20′ W. The extreme west of the Cape Verde peninsula is 17° 32′ W.

Boundaries. The Atlantic Ocean forms the main western boundary. The only exceptions to this are the frontier with the Gambia and the boundary between Senegal and Dakar. The latter leaves the coast at 14° 49′ N. and runs roughly south-south-east until it is 2 miles from Goree bay. There it turns east and afterwards south to strike the bay 1 mile east of Rufisque.

22:Winterbotham et al. K-4 (no date) 1944 M537 Senegal MS 37

At this stage no French taxation was imposed. Faidherbe was the first to insist that the election of any chiefs must be subject to his approval, and from this time onwards the French hold gradually grew tighter. As the French historian Sabatié has put it:

'These treaties guaranteed the political organization, the religion, customs, institutions, and laws of the native country concerned. They were designed to ensure the security of our commerce and respect for the property of our nationals and our subjects, and they stipulated, by way of compensation, the collection of certain taxes on cattle and exported products for the benefit of chiefs. As a result of the evolution of the colony and its economic and administrative necessities, the clauses and obligations of these treaties have lapsed.'

The system lasted until towards the end of the nineteenth century; but from that time onwards native powers, especially over judicial matters, land, and tribute, have been gradually curtailed. Native chiefs have become agents appointed by the Government, and native administrative institutions have almost everywhere been deliberately abolished. This policy has its roots not only in administrative convenience but also in a strong sense of duty to the individual native and a desire to protect him from misrule.

The Modern Constitution

Until 1920 the four communes of Dakar, Goree, Rufisque, and St. Louis were described as the territory under direct administration, the remainder of the colony as a protectorate. In that year the distinction, which had long been one without a difference, was formally abolished.

Senegal, being the oldest colony, contains about a quarter of the whole European population of French West Africa. It also contains a larger proportion of educated and politically minded natives than the other colonies, and its constitution is more democratic. This last fact is mainly due to the equalitarian doctrines of the July Monarchy at the time when the personal status of Senegalese native citizens and their rights as Frenchmen were determined. In 1833 the French Parliament enacted that any person born free, or having legally acquired his liberty, enjoyed in the French colonies both civil and political rights under conditions prescribed by law. In 1848, therefore, when the colony first acquired the right to send a deputy to the French Parliament, natives born in the French settlements of Goree, Rufisque, and St. Louis, the only French soil in Senegal at the time, became entitled to the Parliamentary vote and to all the

22:Winterbotham et al. K-4 (no date) 1944 MS37 Senegal MS 37

641 other privileges of French citizenship. In due course the same
[633] status was conferred on natives of Dakar, and in 1916 French citizenship was extended not only to natives born in these four communes but to their descendants also. It thus came about that out
[162] of 80,500 native citizens in the whole of French West Africa 78,000 live in Senegal or Dakar. Of these the great bulk resides in the four old communes.

633 Municipal government, on entirely metropolitan lines, was conferred upon St. Louis and Goree in 1872 and upon Rufisque in 1880. In 1887 Dakar, which had hitherto formed part of Goree, was separated from it, receiving its own elected mayor and council, and in 1929 absorbed its parent. The District of Dakar was separated from Senegal in 1924, and received its own Administrator, directly responsible to the Governor-General.

646 Parliamentary representation was suspended under Napoleon III, but restored in 1870. Until 1914 a European had been elected, but the racial issue was deliberately raised in that year, when M. Blaise
[645] Diagne, a Sérère, entered on his long term as Deputy for Senegal. He thoroughly justified his race by heading a campaign for voluntary recruitment in Senegal during the War of 1914–1918, and subsequently held office as Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies. As early as 1879 the General Council was elected by the citizens of
[633] the four communes. It had certain powers of taxation and legislation over the four communes, powers which, though limited, were more democratic than in other parts of French West Africa. Its greatest influence, however, lay in the criticism of the Government, a function which, withheld from it by law, sprang naturally from the power of taxation. When the formal distinction between colony and protectorate disappeared, the General Council gave place to the existing Colonial Council (p. 434), a body with generally similar powers extending over the whole colony.

618 *Senegal and Federation.* Before 1845 and again from 1859 to 1893
[643] the whole of what is now French West Africa was administered by the Governor of Senegal. It was natural, therefore, that in 1895 he should be appointed Governor-General of the Federation, with its not very precise constitution. This appointment was welcomed in Senegal, as it enhanced the colony's supremacy. In 1902 the Governor-Generalship was made a separate office, and Senegal sank to the level of the other colonies. This new arrangement, although a blow
[652] to the pride of the Senegalese, did not touch their pockets. They still kept control of their own revenues, out of which they voted a sum

22: Winterbotham et al. K-4 (no date) 1944 MS37 Senegal MS 37

9. ADMINISTRATION

DAKAR, the capital of the Federation and the residence of the Governor-General, is geographically in Senegal, and from its foundation in 1863 it was administered by the Governor of Senegal as part of that colony. By the decrees of 25 October and 27 November 1924, however, the District of Dakar was, without prejudice to its municipal institutions, made a separate administrative unit, under an Administrator directly responsible to the Governor-General. Only Dakar and Goree were originally included, with an area of 60 square miles, but the Commune of Rufisque was added by a decree of 9 June 1937. The District now has a population of 127,000, and it has its own budget.

Senegal returns a deputy to the French Chamber of Deputies, who is elected by French citizens (European or native) resident in the colony and in Dakar. The deputy is *ex officio* Senegal's representative on the Supreme Council of the French Colonial Empire.

Councils

Executive Councils. The Executive Council of Senegal is composed of the Governor, the Secretary-General, the Attorney-General, the officer commanding the troops, one French citizen elected by the Chamber of Commerce of St. Louis, and one citizen and two subjects nominated for two years by the Governor-General.

It is a purely advisory body, but the Governor is bound to consult it on such matters as the Colonial Budget, proposed changes in taxation, disposal of government property, and concessions. He may indeed, require its advice on any matter he chooses.

The Executive Council for the District of Dakar was at one time composed of the Standing Committee of the Governor-General's Council together with the Administrator. This arrangement, legalized in 1924, was changed by a decree of the 9 June 1937 which gave Dakar its own Executive Council, composed of the Administrator, Deputy-Administrator, the officer commanding the troops at Dakar, the Attorney-General, one member of the Chamber of Commerce appointed by that body, two municipal councillors of Dakar and one of Rufisque appointed by their respective councils, and one French subject appointed by the Governor-General.

22:Winterbotham et al. K-4 (no date) 1944 MS37 Senegal MS 31

633 The Council has the same functions as that of the colony, but its
645 decisions need the approval (usually formal) of the Standing
[648] Committee of the Governor-General's Council.

The Executive Councils of Senegal and of Dakar are known as *conseils privés*, whereas those of the other colonies are known as *conseils d'administration*.

646 *The Colonial Council of Senegal.* The history of the Colonial
633 Council and of its predecessor, the General Council, has been given above. The earlier council had jurisdiction over the four full communes only, but its successor, which dates from 1920, when all distinctions between colony and protectorate were abolished, has jurisdiction over the whole colony. The inhabitants of the District of Dakar still retain their votes for the Colonial Council, and as a corollary the Council can discuss the affairs of the District. The pretext for this decision was afforded by the provision, in the decrees
[652] of 1924, that the Colonial Budget of Senegal should contain a grant in aid of Dakar; but French writers do not disguise the fact that it was thought not desirable entirely to divorce the District from the rest of Senegal. The decrees of 1924, therefore, expressly left it an integral, though autonomous, part.

646 The Colonial Council is unique in French Africa in that its
666 membership includes Europeans, natives, chiefs, citizens, and sub-
[642] jects. It is, therefore, worthy of detailed mention. Its constitution and powers are laid down in a decree of 4 December 1920, as amended by decrees of 30 March 1925, 13 January 1930, and 8 April 1939. This last added the subjects. The colony is divided into four electoral districts, from which members are elected on a population basis. The Council is elected for a term of six years, but, on the recom-
[643] mendation of the Governor, it may be dissolved by the Governor-General. Should a dissolution occur, a new election must be held within three months. There are 62 members in all: 26 citizens elected by citizens, 18 provincial or canton chiefs elected by those of the same rank, and 18 native subjects. These subjects must either have been born in the colony or be descendants of subjects born in
[641] the colony; they must have completed their military service; and they are elected by all other subjects who fulfil the same conditions. In 1929 the European element only numbered one-fifth of the total membership, and the additions made in 1939 will have had the effect of swamping it.

646 The Council meets for a fortnight's session once a year, but it can
643 be summoned by the Governor at any time. It chooses its own

22: Winterbotham et al. K-4 (no date) 1944 M537 Senegal MS 37

Municipal Government

Full Communes. Dakar (including Goree), St. Louis, and Rufisque are full communes (Vol. I, p. 258), the only ones in the Federation. 633

The Municipal Councils, which choose their own mayors, consist of from fifteen to eighteen members. These are elected for terms of four years by the French citizens of their towns, and since 1910 all the councils have had African majorities. At first these communes had powers as extensive as their counterparts in France, and they were responsible for police, public health, roads, markets, lighting, and elementary education. In 1918, however, the colonial authorities took over public health at St. Louis and at Dakar, and in 1927 at Rufisque. Similarly, in 1924, the creation of the District of Dakar was made the occasion to subtract police and roads from the commune. The same process, without the same excuse, went on in 1927 for St. Louis and for Rufisque. For all these services the municipalities still make financial contributions.

Their revenue comes from direct government grants, from municipal rates, and from municipal undertakings. Altogether they include market dues, liquor licences, lighting, and a proportion of the business licences and other colonial taxes. In normal years the revenue of Dakar averaged some 8,000,000 francs, of St. Louis 7,750,000 francs, and of Rufisque 5,600,000 francs. 652 651 633

In each case the budget is drawn up by the mayor, passed by his council, and submitted to the Governor or Administrator. [643] 633

Mixed Communes. There are fifteen mixed communes in Senegal, namely Bambey, Bargny-Gouddou, Diourbel, Fatik, Foundiougne, Gossas, Kaolack, Kébémer, Kombole, Louga, M'Bour, Mekhé, Thiès, Tivaouane, and Ziguinchor. Thirteen of them are mixed communes of the first degree, but since 1925 Kaolack and Ziguinchor have been mixed communes of the second degree.

Chambers of Commerce. There are Chambers of Commerce at Dakar, Kaolack, St. Louis, Thiès, and Ziguinchor. The one at St. Louis is the successor of a Committee of Commerce which was set up in 1825. The Chamber at Thiès is also known as the Chamber of Cayor-Baol. It was first founded at Rufisque in 1883, but in 1937, when that town was included in the District of Dakar, it was moved to its present headquarters. 441 647

In Senegal there are no separate Chambers of Agriculture and Industry, but the Chamber of Commerce at Dakar has a section, established in 1930, devoted to those two activities.

22:Winterbotham et al. K-4 (no date) 1944 MS37 Senegal MS37

[RUFISQUE]

439 Rufisque was the first port from which ground-nuts were exported, and to-day ground-nuts are still the main article of trade. In the first quarter of 1939 it exported 25,152 tons of them. On the north side
504 of Goree bay, Rufisque can only handle small ships. There is anchorage off shore in 3–7 fathoms, but from July to November heavy swell makes it almost unusable.

●633 Since 1937 the town has been in the District of Dakar.

Jetties and Equipment. There are three jetties with alongside depths
504 of at least 9½ feet. Two of these are of iron, one being 603 feet long and 33 feet wide with an extension by a wharf 65 feet long and 52 feet wide. The third is of concrete and is 656 feet long. Decauville tracks connect these jetties to the railway. There is one 5-ton crane and one 2-ton, besides smaller ones. There are 4 tugs and 2 lighters.

Communications

496 *Rail.* By rail Rufisque is 17 miles from Dakar, 26½ miles from Thiès, 146 miles from St. Louis, and 268 miles from Tambacounda.

Road. The intercolonial road runs from Dakar (15 miles) through
491 to Thiès (29 miles), where it divides. Eight miles beyond Rufisque a colonial road branches off it to go to M'Bour (38 miles), Joal (61 miles), and Fatik (101 miles). Another colonial road goes north-eastwards from the town to Sangalkan (6 miles) and Kayar (17 miles).

36 [131] [162] M'Bour (14° 21′; 16° 57′ W.). Population, *c.* 4,500, including 175 Europeans. Mixed Commune. District headquarters. Custom-house. Medical post. Police station.

The town of M'Bour stands at the head of a shallow cove which extends for a mile out to sea as a passage between two reefs. Inside
[504] the cove the water is up to 4½ feet deep, and there is a wharf used by surf-boats. Ships anchor 2½ miles off shore, but heavy swell makes
[439] conditions difficult from June to November. Ground-nuts and millet are exported.

[491] M'Bour is on the colonial road from Rufisque (38 miles) to Joal (23 miles) and Fatik (63 miles). Several minor roads lead inland,
[494] notably one to Thiès, along which there is a bus service twice a day. For half the year there is also a service to Joal.

[131] [162] Joal (14° 09′; 16° 51′ W.). Population, *c.* 900. Custom-house. Roman Catholic mission.

[175] Joal was founded by the Norman Company in the middle of the seventeenth century. It was captured by the Dutch in 1677 and by

22: Winterbotham et al. K-4 (no date) 1944 M837 Senegal MS 37

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Expenditure

	Essential expenditure Francs	*Optional expenditure Francs*
I. Ordinary Expenditure		
Debt charges	657,000	..
Salaries of administrative staffs	23,403,000	..
Other administrative expenses	3,861,550	1,904,450
Posts, telegraphs, &c. (salaries and wages)	13,239,200	1,234,800
Posts, telegraphs, &c. (plant and materials)	2,246,800	6,431,200
Public works	141,850	12,485,150
Social and economic departments (salaries)	12,967,200	50,800
Social and economic departments (other expenditure)	2,320,730	9,083,270
Sundry disbursements	24,642,013	1,189,987
Secret funds	10,000	..
Unforeseen expenses	1,000	167,000
TOTALS	83,690,343	32,636,657
II. Extraordinary Expenditure		
Previous payments to the Reserve Bank		4,710,000
TOTAL		120,737,000

Two features emerge from an examination of these figures. One is the customary large proportion of the expenditure paid out in salaries, and the other is the division of the expenditure into 'essential' and 'optional' categories. It will also be observed that only a small percentage of the salaries is found in the latter column.

The District of Dakar

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The budget for 1938 balanced at 60,033,000 francs (£386,301). Its form of presentation was the same as for the ordinary colonies, except that there was no Extraordinary Revenue or Expenditure, and its details were as follows:

Revenue

	Francs
Customs and excise	5,306,000
Posts, telegraphs, &c.	5,488,600
Grants and subsidies	49,189,400
Receipts from previous financial year	49,000
TOTAL	60,033,000

Expenditure

	Francs
Debt charges	10,000
Administration of the District (salaries)	308,000
Administration of the District (other expenses)	135,300

22:Winterbotham et al. K-4 (no date) 1944 MS37 Senegal MS 37

	Francs
Federal administration (salaries)	10,206,400
Federal administration (other expenses)	1,656,000
Financial department (salaries)	1,447,000
Financial department (other expenses)	370,000
Posts, telegraphs, &c. (salaries and wages)	6,631,000
Posts, telegraphs, &c. (plant and materials)	3,492,000
Public works	6,782,000
Social and economic departments (salaries)	8,868,000
Social and economic departments (other expenditure)	10,850,000
Sundry disbursements	2,726,000
Secret funds	12,600
Unforeseen expenses	85,000
Water department (salaries)	748,000
Water department (other expenditure)	3,345,500
TOTAL	60,033,000

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In 1937, however, Extraordinary Expenditure amounted to 8,445,000 francs (£67,875).

The budget for the Port of Dakar has already been given on p. 447.

14. COMMUNICATIONS

WATERWAYS

THE navigable rivers and estuaries of the colony have been fully described in Volume I, pp. 366–7. The principal distances from St. Louis up the Senegal river are as follows:

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	Miles
St. Louis	0
Rosso	82
Dagana	116
Podor	177
Boghé (Mauritania)	247
Kaédi (Mauritania)	341
Matam	400
Bakel	519
Ambidedi (French Sudan)	574
Kayes (French Sudan)	603

RAILWAYS

There are 648 miles (1,043 km.) of railway in the colony, all of metre gauge. For purposes of description six lines may be distinguished.

496

1. Dakar–St. Louis (163 miles).
2. Louga–Linguéré (81 miles).

/102 cont./

632 N'Gahaye,
N'Guer,
Pakalla-Mandack
N'Doukoumane (Kaffrine)
Koungheul.

The subdivision of Sine is divided into five cantons:

Diakhao-Maroutte,
Sanghaye-N'Gayokème,
Diohine,
Diouroup,
Dangana.

The subdivision of Bas-Saloum has three cantons:

Djilor,
Sokone,
Niombato.

162 The population is distributed as follows:

Subdivision of Kaolack	141,000	inhabitants
Subdivision of Sine.....	89,000	"
Subdivision of Bas-Saloum...	50,000	"
Total	280,000	

633 Mixed communes. Mixed communes have been created in certain important localities. There are four of them:

Kaolack,
Fatick,
Foundiougne,
Gossas.

633 /103/ The mixed commune of Kaolack has 700 Europeans
162 and assimilated individuals /assimilés/ and 8,000 natives (20 years ago it had 50 Europeans and 600 natives).

That of Fatick has 2,000 natives and 120 Europeans. Those of Foundiougne and Gossas have 50 Europeans and 800 natives each.

633 The importance of Kaolack comes from the fact that it is the principal port of the Saloum, the terminal point of a branch of the major railroad from the Sudan, and the center of a region that is a great producer of groundnuts.

There is a chamber of commerce, a court of the first

/103 cont./

633 [47] instance, a customs office, and a telegraph, telephone, and post office. The various administrative services are represented there (public works, treasury, medical aid, education, agriculture, veterinary medicine, etc.).

433 Financial situation. Taxes. The circle of Sine-Saloum is constantly increasing in importance because of its size, population, and economic resources.

[496] [49] [505] Because of its exceptional location, the railway from the Sudan crosses it over a distance of 190 kilometers. Seven stations mark it out. Its railroad network and its system of highways and canals permit it to drain to Kaolack and [439] Foundiougne all of the products of the soil. Thus, the total commerce for 1927 (imports and exports combined) amounted to 350 million francs for the circle. The customs duties collected for the benefit of the general budget of French West Africa reached 13 million francs. The taxes from the tax rolls (personal taxes, patents, licenses, etc.) have risen to 25 million francs, whereas they did not exceed the figure of 4,300,000 francs in 1923. The advance is thus remarkable.

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Native personal taxes alone in 1927 provided 3,768,355 francs, whereas in 1921 they brought in only 2,791,000 francs.

Taxes on livestock went from 270,000 francs in 1921 to 425,000 francs in 1927.

871 [875] [872] /104/ Education. Instruction is given to the children by French and native teachers. There is a regional school with 500 pupils at Kaolack. Primary schools are operating at Fatick, Foundiougne, Sokone, Gossas, Kaffrine, and Nioro. In all, 1,200 children receive instruction; only an elite goes to school. A need for the creation of new centers of education is felt, especially at Birkelane, Koungheul, Gandiaye, Niakhar, and Tataguine. Nevertheless, although instruction in French is given only in our schools, the natives also receive some rudiments of instruction in the Koranic schools. The latter are quite numerous.

[1 [in KAOLACK - ANALYST]]